

Responding to a Trust Violation: The Relative Effectiveness of Apology, Denial, and
Reticence

Liana Kayley Riddington

A report submitted in partial fulfilment for the degree requirements of Bachelor of
Behavioural Science with Honours at the University of Tasmania 2015.

I declare that this report is my own original work and that contributions of others
have been duly acknowledged

Liana Kayley Riddington

22nd October 2015

Acknowledgements

I would firstly like to give a huge thank you to my supervisor Doctor Mathew Palmer for the assistance he has given me throughout the year, and supporting me throughout this journey. I would not have been able to complete my thesis and accomplish all that I have without his hard work and patience. Thank you for answering my questions and emails throughout the year, especially during the week leading up to submission.

I would like to acknowledge the great work my fellow honours student Claire Saggars put into our joint study throughout the year to set up our study and gather data. Thank you for all of your help and guidance.

A special thank you to my father for proof reading my thesis and responding to my emails and late night phone calls, as well as giving me valuable advice I can take with me after graduation.

Thank you to my Mum, Nan, and Pop for the constant love, support, encouragement, and positive words to keep me going. Thank you for your endless help throughout the year by looking after me and putting up with my constant stress.

I would like to thank my partner Alastair for having faith in my abilities to get through the year, and for making me sit down and study when I felt overwhelmed. Your love, support, and understanding means everything to me.

I would also like to make a special mention to Laura who would meet up with me for coffee breaks, and offer advice when I needed it. Her guidance means a lot to me, and I will be eternally grateful for her love, support, and friendship.

Finally, a big thank you to my fellow honours students for encouraging me, and giving me guidance and support during the year. I will be forever grateful for the friendships we have formed during our studies together over the past four years.

Table of Contents

List of Tables	v
List of Figures	vi
Title Page	vii
Abstract	1
Introduction	2
What is Trust and Trust Repair?.....	3
Trust in Newly Formed Relationships	4
Types of Trust Violations	5
Integrity-Based Trust Violations	5
Competence-Based Trust Violations	6
Responding to a Trust Violation	7
Apology and Denial	7
Reticence as an Additional Response Type	10
Guilty of the Allegation	13
Summary	15
Method	17
Participants	17
Design.....	17
Procedure	18
Scenario	19
Manipulations.....	20
Violation Type	20
Response Type	21
Evidence of Guilt	21

Questionnaire	21
Perceived Integrity Scale	22
Perceived Competence Scale	22
Willingness to Risk Scale	22
Willingness to Hire Scale	22
Job Responsibilities Scale	22
Manipulation checks	23
Results	23
Data Cleaning	23
Preliminary Analyses	24
Manipulation Checks	24
Assumption Testing	24
Hypothesis Testing	25
Hypothesis 1	25
Hypothesis 2.....	26
Hypothesis 3	27
Impact of Evidence of Guilt on Ratings of Trust	29
Enforced and Voluntary Reticence after Evidence of Guilt	30
Hypothesis 4.....	32
Discussion	33
Apology and Denial.....	34
Enforced and Voluntary Reticence	35
Reticence as an Alternative Response	37
Practical Implications	38
Limitations and Future Directions for Research	39
Conclusion	41

References	43
Appendices	48
Appendix A – Information Sheet	48
Appendix B – Consent Form.....	50
Appendix C – Example Scenario	52
Appendix D – Multi-Item Measures and Manipulation Checks	54
Appendix E – Evidence of Guilt	57
Appendix F – Approval Letter from the Human Research Ethics Committee (Tasmania) Network.....	58
Appendix G – Hypothesis 3 Planned Contrasts Output	60
Appendix H – Paired Samples t-Tests Output	61
Appendix I – Hypothesis 4 Planned Contrasts Output	62

List of Tables

Table 1. Hypothesis 1 Means and Standard Deviations for a Competence Violation	26
Table 2. Hypothesis 1 Means and Standard Deviations for an integrity Violation....	27
Table 3. Means and Standard Deviations for Optimal Response, Suboptimal Response, and Reticence	29
Table 4. Means and Standard Deviations for Time 1 and Time 2	30
Table 5. Means and Standard Deviations for Enforced and Voluntary Reticence after Evidence of Guilt	31
Table 6. Means and Standard Deviations for Apology, Denial, and Reticence after Evidence of Guilt	33

List of Figures

Figure 1. Tentative prediction for the effectiveness of all responses across violation types before evidence of guilt	16
Figure 2. Tentative prediction for the effectiveness of all responses across violation types after evidence of guilt	16
Figure 3. Flow diagram of the procedure	19

Responding to a Trust Violation: The Relative Effectiveness of Apology, Denial, and
Reticence

Liana Kayley Riddington

Word count: 9856

Abstract

Previous research has demonstrated that reticence, in which an individual does not respond to an allegation, is an ineffective response for repairing trust. This study examined whether reticence could be an effective response relative to apology and denial when the response is unambiguous about why it is utilised. This study also examined whether reticence could be an effective response when evidence has determined that the accused was guilty of the allegation. A sample of 162 participants was randomly allocated to receive a scenario that varied in terms of the violation and response type. Participants answered a short questionnaire to assess their trusting beliefs and intentions toward the accused. Participants were then provided with evidence of guilt, and asked to re-answer the questionnaire. Results indicated that reticence was an ineffective response before and after guilt when compared to apology and denial, regardless of the type of violation that had occurred. The implications derived from these findings suggest that the way individuals are currently asked to respond requires a change. Preventing an individual from responding is not facilitating the restoration of positive perceptions. Furthermore, for those who are guilty but wish to repair trust, reticence offers no benefits over denying the allegation.

Keywords: Response, Trust Repair, Offence, Guilty, Allegation.

,

Trust is an important aspect of human relationships and is necessary for the functioning of organisations. There is extensive research into the way trust is established, sustained, and repaired. Research illustrates the multitude of positive outcomes that arise from trusting relationships within organisations. Dirks and Sharlicki (2009) demonstrated that perceptions of trustworthiness of an individual lead to higher performance. This perception of trustworthiness fosters the willingness of co-workers to share resources and facilitates effective organisational functioning (Dirks & Sharlicki, 2009). Trust has also been found to directly and indirectly facilitate other organisational aspects such as innovation, citizenship behaviours, attitudes, satisfaction, group performance, and motivation (see Dirks & Ferrin, 2002, for a review; Ellonen, Blomqvist, & Puumalainen, 2008; Dirks, 1999).

It is often that trust becomes damaged within organisational relationships. Damaged trust is argued to elicit negative emotions such as anger and hostility, which can lead to retaliatory behaviours and a reassessment of the relationship (Lewicki & Bunker, 1996; Barclay, Skarlicki, & Pugh, 2005). This illustrates the importance of investigating strategies for repairing trust to enable the restoration of relationships. Current investigation of trust repair has led to a significant amount of research examining different strategies for repairing trust, such as how to respond to an allegation of a trust violation. In particular, the effectiveness of apology and denial has been studied as they are commonly used responses.

This study primarily utilises an influential framework to examine how effective different responses are for repairing trust (Kim, Ferrin, Cooper, & Dirks, 2004). This established framework provides an explanation regarding the effectiveness of apology and denial for responding to different types of trust violations. This study will extend on previous research that has examined how

response effectiveness varies with the type of transgression. Recently reticence has been studied in relation to apology and denial (Ferrin, Kim, Cooper, & Dirks, 2007). The theoretical framework has been extended to provide an explanation for the effectiveness of reticence. As current evidence is limited regarding reticence, this study ultimately aims to examine whether there are some circumstances in which reticence can be an effective response.

This study will begin by exploring the meaning of trust and how, even in newly formed relationships, trust is evident. Types of trust violations will then be identified and discussed, along with an examination of different response types and how the effectiveness of these responses may depend on the type of violation that has occurred. Furthermore, this study will propose that once it is determined the individual is guilty of a trust violation, the effectiveness of these responses will alter.

What is Trust and Trust Repair?

It is important to understand the concept of trust prior to discussion of how trust can be damaged, and what strategies can be effective for trust repair. Trust is defined as maintaining positive expectations about an individual's behaviour, and believing they will act in the best interest of others (Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995; Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt, & Camerer, 1998). As a result, an individual will be more willing to be vulnerable to their actions and engage in risk taking (Schoorman, Mayer, & Davis, 2007). According to McKnight, Cummings, and Chervany (1998), trust can be broken down into *trusting beliefs* and *trusting intentions*. Trusting beliefs refers to whether one believes another is competent, honest and predictable (McKnight et al., 1998). In contrast, trusting intentions involve the willingness to depend on another (McKnight et al., 1998). Trusting beliefs are argued to affect trusting intentions (McKnight et al., 1998). If one believes the other to be competent,

they will be more willing to depend on this individual (McKnight et al., 1998).

Separating trust into two components enables a precise definition of trust. Trust is evident if an individual holds trusting beliefs and intentions toward another (McKnight et al., 1998).

A trust violation occurs when the actions and behaviour of another does not conform to the expectations one has about the other, which reduces trusting beliefs and intentions (Lewicki & Wiethoff, 2000; Tomlinson, Dineen, & Lewicki, 2004). Allegations of a violation, without evidence to prove its truth, can violate trust. This is due to individuals comprehending information prior to assessing the accuracy of the information (Gilbert, 1991; Gilbert, Krull, & Malone, 1990). Trust repair is when one or both parties engage in activities to restore positive attributes, and reduce negative perceptions which occurred from the violation (Dirks, Lewicki, & Zaheer, 2009). As a result, positive beliefs about the individual's behaviour and intentions to depend on this individual are restored (Kim et al., 2004; Ferrin et al., 2007). It has been noted that trust may not be easily repaired. Schoorman et al. (2007) suggest that the way trust was damaged, and how severely trust was damaged, influence the ability to repair trust. These factors influence the effectiveness repair strategies are likely to be for trust repair (Schoorman et al., 2007).

Trust in Newly Formed Relationships

Trust development was once thought to be a gradual process, where trust accumulated from direct experience with an individual through reoccurring interactions (Lewicki & Wiethoff, 2000; Lewicki & Bunker, 1996). It is now evident that individuals elicit high levels of trust, even in newly formed relationships (McKnight et al., 1998). Approximately 54% of Australians felt as though they could trust 'most people', meaning they have high level of generalised trust (Australian

Bureau of Statistics, 2007). Initial trust is when individuals first interact, and is not based on previous experiences and knowledge (McKnight et al., 1998). It is argued that initial trust is assumption based, which may explain why allegations of a violation are adequate to damage trust (McKnight et al., 1998). There is an increasing occurrence of situations in which newly formed relationships occur, such as integrating organisational teams (McKnight et al., 1998). These situations are relevant as individuals are often in situations in which they must work with and trust others they have not interacted with before. This study focuses on a relationship with no prior interactions, where it has been demonstrated that some level of trust is present (Kim et al., 2004).

Types of Trust Violations

Previous examination of trust repair has led to the development of a theoretical framework which distinguishes between two violation types that damage different aspects of trust; *integrity* and *competence* violations. Butler and Cantrell (1984) argue that integrity and competence are important determinants of trust. Furthermore, Reeder and Brewer (1979) propose the schematic model of dispositional attribution in which individuals use hierarchical restrictive schemas to make intuitive inferences about the integrity and competence of other individuals (Reeder & Brewer, 1979). These schemas will be discussed in the following section.

Integrity-Based Trust Violations. Integrity-based trust violations are concerned with whether an individual adheres to the appropriate values or principles (e.g. moral or ethical) and are honest about their actions (Mayer et al., 1995; Butler & Cantrell, 1984). Trust is violated if it is perceived that an individual did not adhere to the appropriate values or principles, or acted in a dishonest manner (Mayer et al., 1995). It is argued that integrity is not domain specific, where integrity violations are

likely to impact other relationship domains (Dirks et al., 2009). Individuals are more likely to assume that integrity in one area (i.e. adhering to ethics) will be diagnostic of integrity in another area (i.e. keeping promises). Based on hierarchical restrictive schemas, if an individual acts in a dishonest manner, the individual is perceived as lacking integrity as those with high levels of integrity would refrain from dishonest behaviour (Reeder & Brewer, 1979; Kim et al., 2004). This belief is formed on the basis that, if an individual had a low level of integrity, they could act in a dishonest manner to gain advantage above others (Reeder & Brewer, 1979; Kim et al., 2004). Behaviour becomes an indicator of overall integrity and fosters the belief that future behaviour will, or will not, be guided by integrity (Kim et al., 2004).

Competence-Based Trust Violations. In contrast, competence based trust violations relate to the individuals capabilities, such as having the appropriate skills and knowledge for a task or job (Butler & Cantrell, 1984). Competence is domain specific, in which trust depends on whether the individual is seen as having abilities in a specific area (Mayer et al., 1995). It is suggested that individuals are less likely to assume that competence in one area (i.e. mathematics) will be diagnostic of competence in another area (i.e. science) (Dirks et al., 2009). Violations involving competence foster the perception that the individual lacks skills and knowledge to carry out a task or job successfully (Butler & Cantrell, 1984). Based on hierarchical restrictive schemas, individuals tend to believe that success at a task or job is a reliable indicator of whether the individual has a high level of competence (Reeder & Brewer, 1979; Kim et al., 2004). This belief is formed on the basis that, if the individual had a low level of competence, the individual would have been incapable of completing the task or job successfully (Reeder & Brewer, 1979; Kim et al., 2004; Reeder & Coovert, 1986).

Responding to a Trust Violation

Apology and Denial. There are different responses that one can utilise to respond to an allegation of a trust violation. Apology and denial have been frequently studied for repairing trust as they are commonly used strategies to respond to an allegation. According to the definition of apology, the individual is explicitly acknowledging guilt for the allegation (Kim et al., 2004). Apology is perceived as taking responsibility for behaviour, meaning the individual is showing regret and redemption (Kim et al., 2004). As a result, apologising is perceived as indicating future occurrences will be avoided (Kim et al., 2004). In contrast, according to the definition of denial, the individual is explicitly rejecting responsibility and involvement in the allegation by stating that the allegation is untrue (Kim et al., 2004). As a result, denial shows no regret or redemption, and provides doubt about future behaviour (Kim et al., 2004).

Discussions on which response is more effective have previously reached competing conclusions. Apology has been shown to demonstrate beneficial effects on trust by having a positive influence on restoring perceptions and the willingness to reconcile (Pace, Feduik, & Botero, 2010; Tomlinson et al., 2004). In contrast, apologies have been argued to be ineffective as they may not foster the restoration of trust or forgiveness, especially if the act was accompanied by deception or intent (Struthers, Eaton, Santelli, Uchiyama, & Shirvani, 2008; Schweitzer, Hershey, & Bradlow, 2006). Furthermore, it has been shown that to restore trust for severe violations, a simple apology may not suffice (Schlenker & Darby, 1981; Pace et al., 2010). As a result, it has been argued that denial may be a more beneficial response. It has been demonstrated that a candidate accused of sexual or financial misconduct

was perceived more positively when denying the accusation rather than apologising (Sigal, Hsu, Foodim, & Betman, 1988).

Results regarding the effectiveness of apology and denial have led to the development of a prominent theoretical framework in the literature. This framework, proposed by Kim et al. (2004), emphasises that the effectiveness of apology and denial differ depending on the violation type. Evidence suggests that both apology and denial can be effective responses depending on the type of violation that has occurred. Kim et al. (2004) asked participants to assume the role of a manager who was in charge of hiring a senior level tax accountant. During the interview, an allegation arose in which the candidate was accused of filing a tax return incorrectly, framed as either due to intention or inadequate knowledge of the relevant tax codes (Kim et al., 2004). In response, the candidate either apologised or denied the allegation (Kim et al., 2004). Kim et al. (2004) measured trust by examining the impact of the response on repairing trusting beliefs and intentions

The findings demonstrated that, for an integrity violation, participant's perceptions of the candidates' integrity, as well the participant's intentions to hire and assign responsibility, were repaired more successfully when the candidate had denied the allegation compared to apologising (Kim et al., 2004). In contrast, for a trust violation concerning competence, participant's perceptions of competence, as well as participant's intentions to hire and assign responsibility, were repaired more successfully when the candidate had apologised compared to denying the allegation (Kim et al., 2004). These results were replicated by Ferrin et al. (2007), who also provided empirical evidence to support this theoretical framework. Thus, there appears to be particular circumstances in which it is beneficial to use either apology or denial to repair trust.

To explain this pattern of response effectiveness, it has been proposed that there are fundamental differences in the way people weigh negative and positive information for integrity and competence violations (see Snyder & Stukas, 1999, for a review). For integrity violations, individuals tend to weigh negative information higher than positive information (see Snyder & Stukas, 1999, for a review). Negative information becomes diagnostic of the individuals overall integrity (Kim et al., 2004). The confirmation of guilt associated with apology outweighs the beneficial effects of taking responsibility for their actions and showing regret, as admitting guilt signals that the individual lacks integrity (Kim et al., 2004). Once the individual is established to lack integrity, the belief is difficult to prove untrue as it has been integrated into their impression of the individual meaning that the implication of future occurrences being avoided is dismissed (Kim et al., 2004; Reeder & Coover, 1986). One instance of an integrity violation is sufficient to cause individuals to perceive the accused is capable of future offences (Kim et al., 2004). As a result, denial is a more effective than apology.

In contrast, for competence violations, positive information is weighed higher than negative information (see Snyder & Stukas, 1999, for a review). Positive information associated with apologising, such as acknowledging guilt and showing regret, becomes diagnostic of the individuals overall competence (Kim et al., 2004). The beneficial effects of taking responsibility, and showing regret and redemption, become more important than the admission of guilt (Kim et al., 2004). Individuals have a tendency to believe a single act of incompetence was an anomaly and will have no direct impact on future performance (Kim et al., 2004). As a result, apology is more effective than denial.

This study aims to replicate the results from previous research based on this theoretical framework regarding apology and denial by proposing the following hypothesis;

Hypothesis 1: The effectiveness of apology and denial will vary depending on the violation type. For an integrity violation, trust will be restored more successfully if the accused responds with denial compared to apology. For a competence violation, trust will be restored more successfully if the accused responds with an apology compared to denial.

Reticence as an Additional Response Type. Recent research has examined the effectiveness of reticence for repairing trust. Ferrin et al. (2007) defined reticence as the individual neither admitting nor denying the allegation, and withholding information about guilt. The individual is ambiguous about their involvement in the allegation (Ferrin et al., 2007). The occurrence of reticence is common, such as in circumstances involving an ongoing trial or investigation, in which individuals may be prevented by factors (e.g. by a court order) from disclosing information (Ferrin et al., 2007). This illustrates the importance of determining whether reticence is an effective response, particularly when reticence is enforced by law. It is important to understand whether the response effectively minimises prejudice and postpones judgement, or where it disadvantages the individual.

The effectiveness of reticence has been studied relative to the effectiveness of apology and denial. Ferrin et al. (2007) predicted that reticence would be no more effective than the suboptimal response as reticence fails to show redemption and regret for behaviour as demonstrated by an apology, yet does not give any indication of innocence as demonstrated by denial. The findings from Ferrin et al. (2007) supported this prediction, indicating that reticence was no more effective than

apology for integrity violations and denial for competence violations (Ferrin et al., 2007). It was concluded, based on these findings, that reticence was an ineffective response for repairing trust as it combines the worst elements of apology and denial (Ferrin et al., 2007).

It could be argued that the findings from Ferrin et al. (2007) were due to the ambiguous description of reticence provided to participants. There are many reasons as to why an individual may utilise reticence. The current study proposes that reticence can be voluntary or enforced in nature. Voluntary reticence is defined as the individual choosing not to respond to the allegation and withholding information regarding guilt. The individual may respond to the allegation by stating that they refuse, or do not wish, to comment. In comparison, enforced reticence is defined as an external factor inhibiting the individual's response to the allegation, making the individual unable to provide information about guilt. Situational or environmental factors include ethical reasons such as confidentiality agreements or legal constraints. The individual may state that they are unable to respond due to this inhibiting factor preventing the response. In both cases, there is still ambiguity about guilt.

This study proposes that Fundamental Attribution Error (FAE) may provide some insight into the potential effectiveness of these responses. The FAE provides an explanation for how individuals understand and attribute causes for behaviour in social contexts. The FAE suggests that individuals have a tendency to overestimate the influence of dispositional characteristics (e.g. personality, attitudes, etc.) relative to situational influences (e.g. peers) on behaviour (Ross, 1977). Individuals tend to attribute behaviour to dispositional characteristics rather than considering situational influences as an explanation for behaviour (Ross, 1977). Evidence from Jones and

Harris (1967) demonstrated the impact of attributions on attitudes. The study involved participants making judgements on whether the opinion expressed in an essay on Castro's Cuba reflected the individual's true attitude. Jones and Harris (1967) concluded that, although individuals take situational factors into account, these factors are weighted less than the individual's behaviour.

Evidence has demonstrated that intentional behaviour is more likely to be attributed to an internal cause and as a result, the individual's intentions, reasons, and motives are emphasised (Malle, 1999). Based on this evidence suggesting that individuals perceive intentional behaviour as a reflection of the individuals motives, it is reasonable to predict that voluntary reticence may imply guilt. This is due to the individual choosing to withhold information, which may elicit the perception that the individual's motive is to hide guilt. Additionally, it is reasonable to predict that, as enforced reticence is based on an external factor inhibiting the response, individuals may be more forgiving toward the accused. This is because they may infer that the accused wanted to respond, yet they were unable to at the time.

Ferrin et al. (2007) may have found reticence to be ineffective for repairing trust as it was not specified whether the response was enforced or voluntary. Participants may have assumed the response was voluntary in nature, which may have fostered the perception of guilt. This reasoning may explain why the results determined reticence to be an ineffective response. The current study will examine this possible explanation by including two separate reticence responses, both of which are unambiguous about why the response was utilised. For instance, enforced reticence involves the individual stating they are not allowed to comment, whereas voluntary reticence involves the individual stating they are choosing not to comment.

Based on this reasoning, this study proposes the following hypotheses on the effectiveness of voluntary and enforced reticence;

Hypothesis 2: For both violation types, it is predicted that enforced reticence will be more effective than voluntary reticence at repairing trust.

Hypothesis 3: Based on the results from Ferrin et al. (2007), it is likely that voluntary reticence will be less effective than the optimal response and no more effective than the suboptimal response to a violation. Furthermore, enforced reticence is predicted to be more effective than voluntary reticence. As there is no clear basis for predicting whether enforced reticence would be less or equally effective than the optimal response, this study will investigate how enforced reticence compares to the optimal response.

Guilty of the Allegation

In some instances where an allegation of a trust violation arises, the individual may find out the truth of whether the accused was guilty of the violation. The predictions in the above discussion are based on allegations arising in which the individual immediately responds and the perceiver has received no evidence regarding guilt. It is predicted that, if it became evident that the individual was guilty of the allegation, the effectiveness of these response types would alter. This prediction is based on the finding from Kim et al. (2004) that the discrepancy between response and actual involvement in the allegation led to a decrease in trust. If the individual apologised for a trust violation they did not commit, or denied a trust violation they did commit, trust decreased (Kim et al., 2004). Trust was repaired more successfully if the individual was upfront and honest about guilt immediately after the allegation arose.

Based on the Kim et al. (2004) findings, predictions can be made in regards to the effectiveness of apology and denial for repairing trust when the individual is guilty of an allegation. It is reasonable to predict that denial would be the least favourable response as the individual had explicitly stated that the allegation was untrue (Kim et al., 2004). This dishonest response could potentially damage trust, counteracting any beneficial effects denial had when examined with no revelation of guilt (Kim et al., 2004). In contrast, as apology explicitly acknowledges guilt, it is reasonable to predict this would be the favourable response as the individual was upfront about their involvement, which shows integrity and honesty for their actions (Kim et al., 2004).

Although the previous predictions may seem obvious, it is much less clear what effect reticence will have on trust repair after evidence of guilt emerges. There has been no prior investigation on the effect of evidence of guilt on reticence. In this study, predictions are based on the function of reticence in relation to apology and denial. Reticence is ambiguous about guilt. Unlike the use of an apology, both forms of reticence fail to acknowledge guilt, meaning these responses would not offer any benefits once guilt is revealed. Similarly to denial, both reticence responses fail to signal redemption and regret for the violation. Failing to convey this information means that reticence may not offer any benefits over denying the allegation. It could be argued that, as enforced reticence is utilised when an external factor inhibits the response, individuals may perceive that the accused may have wanted to respond if they were able to. Thus, individuals may give the accused the benefit of the doubt. Based on this rationale, the following hypothesis is proposed;

Hypothesis 4: After evidence of guilt, apology will be the most effective response as it is upfront and honest about guilt. It is predicted that both forms of

reticence will be no more effective than denial as the accused did not acknowledge guilt, nor signal redemption or regret. This prediction, however, is tentative. As enforced reticence is utilised when the accused is prevented from responding, enforced reticence *may* be more effective than denial if the individual perceives the accused would have responded if they were able to.

Predictions for hypotheses 1-4 are summarised in figures 1 and 2.

Summary

Based on the discussion above, it is evident that there are several aspects of trust repair that require examination. The proposed hypotheses aim to provide insight and clarity in regards to two key research questions. The first question this study aims to address is whether there are some instances in which reticence can be effective compared to apology and denial. Previous findings suggest that reticence has questionable effectiveness as a response. If reticence is no more effective than the suboptimal response to a trust violation (i.e. apology for integrity violations and denial for competence violations), it may not be beneficial to utilise at all. If reticence is separated into two distinct forms, there may be particular circumstances in which reticence is effective.

The second question this study aims to address is whether reticence remains an ineffective response compared to apology and denial once it is revealed that the individual was guilty of the allegation. As there has been no prior investigation into the effects of subsequent guilt on the effectiveness of reticence, this study aims to provide insight and clarity into this issue to facilitate an advanced understanding of reticence. Additionally, based on previous findings, the conclusion appears to be that regardless of whether the person is guilty of the violation, the individual should always deny an integrity violation. This study aims to debunk this conclusion by

demonstrating that denying an allegation in which the individual is guilty of can hinder trust repair.

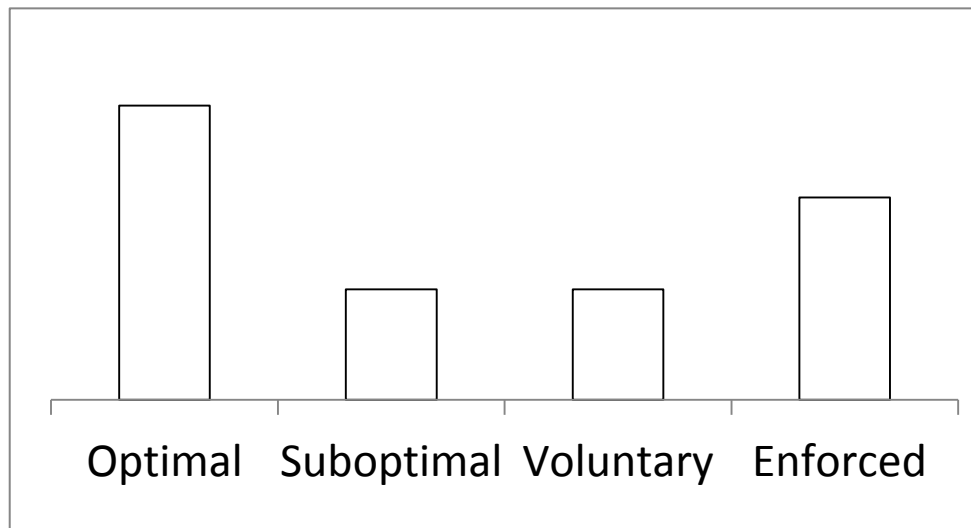


Figure 1. Tentative prediction for the effectiveness of all responses across violation types before evidence of guilt

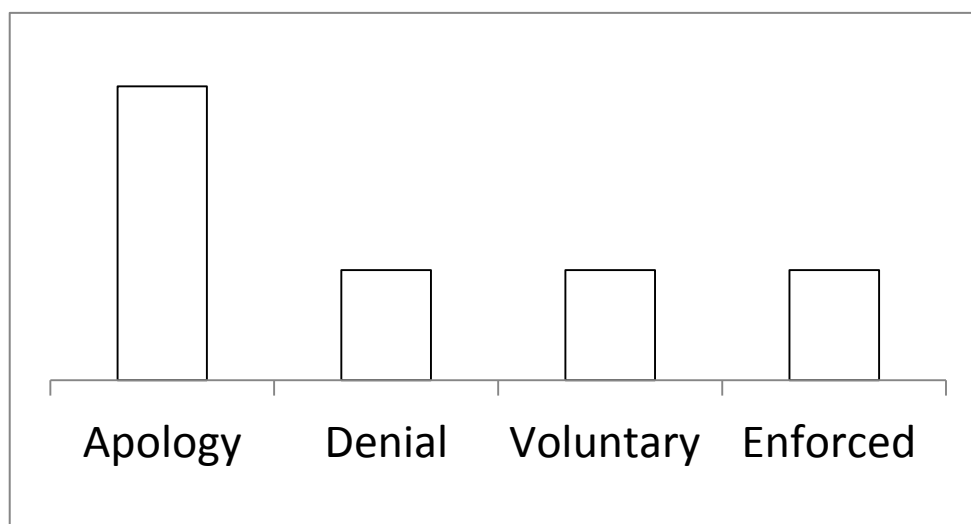


Figure 2. Tentative prediction for the effectiveness of all responses across violation types after evidence of guilt

Method

Participants

One hundred and eighty-five participants were recruited for this study. Based on reading times of the materials, 23 participants were excluded (see results for data cleaning). The final sample consisted of 162 participants between the ages of 18 and 77 ($M = 32.10$, $SD = 15.01$), with 59 % female and 41% male. Participants were recruited from University of Tasmania undergraduate students ($n = 61$), community groups ($n = 23$), and the online data collection website Prolific ($n = 78$ US and UK citizens) (Prolific Research, 2012). Demographics indicated that 67% of the sample has current employment, 38% had been involved in the recruitment of staff, and 23% had held a supervisory role. Participants were given course credit or a small monetary payment for their participation.

Design

Participants were randomly allocated to one condition of a 2 (*violation type*; integrity and competence) x 4 (*response type*; apology, denial, voluntary reticence and enforced reticence) x 2 (*time factor*; assessing trust before and after guilt) mixed-design, with the time factor manipulated within-subjects. Based on the design, there were eight between-subjects conditions. The dependant variables were measures of trusting beliefs and trusting intentions toward the accused. Examination of trust repair was through assessing the relative effectiveness of each response per violation type before and after guilt. Furthermore for power analysis, most previous research in the area has produced a wide range of effect sizes varying from large to very small (Kim et al., 2004; Ferrin et al., 2007). Rather than conducting a formal a priori power analysis, this study followed current guidelines that recommend a minimum of 20 participants per cell (Simmons, Nelson, & Simonsohn, 2011).

Procedure

Ethics approval for this study was provided by the Human Research Ethics Committee (Tasmania) (HREC) (see Appendix F). Participants were provided with an information sheet and consent form (see Appendix A and B) online via Limesurvey (Version 2.06). Participants were randomly allocated to receive one version of a scenario about a trust violation that occurred in the workplace. To assess participant's level of trust in the accused, participants completed a short questionnaire, in which participants rated their trusting beliefs and trusting intentions toward the accused. Participants were then informed that the accused was guilty of the allegation. The questionnaire was readministered to reassess participant's level of trust in the accused. The data was extracted from Limesurvey into Excel to analyse using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). For an outline of the procedure, see **Figure 3**.

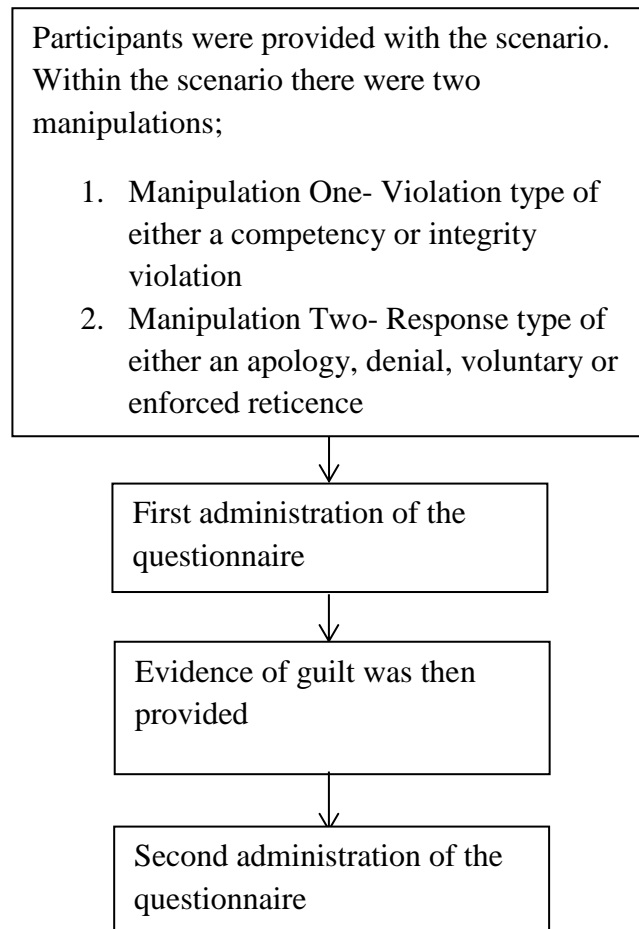


Figure 3. Flow diagram of the procedure

Scenario

Participants were asked to assume the role of an employee working for a government department who was responsible for hiring and managing school support staff. The role involved reviewing applications for a vacant school psychologist position. If the individual was hired, the role would involve allocating caseloads, facilitating regular management and debriefing meetings. Participants were told that Human Resources had already conducted interviews with shortlisted applicants and have provided transcripts to review. Participants were provided a scenario in the form an interview transcript (see Appendix C). The interview format

involved general questions, such as whether the applicant was capable of keeping up with timely reporting of testing, which were asked prior the issue of the allegation.

The allegation came to the interviewer's attention after references had been contacted. The allegation toward the accused was regarding scoring a child's Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children-Fifth Edition (WISC-V) incorrectly¹, framed according to the violation type manipulations. The accused then responded to the allegation with one of the four response types, consistent with the response type manipulations. The accused then stated that they take their work seriously, and the accuracy of their assessments is not something the employer would have to worry about if they decided to hire them.

Manipulations

The manipulations embedded within the scenario were regarding the violation and response type, which were based on manipulations developed by Kim et al. (2004) and Ferrin et al. (2007). Eight versions of the scenario were developed, each including one violation type and one response type. Each scenario depicted the same content with the only changes relating to the manipulations.

Violation Type: The violation was framed as either integrity or competence based, which were described to participants to ensure consistency with the definitions of integrity and competence discussed in the introduction.

Integrity violation. The accused deliberately scored the WISC-V incorrectly due to pressure from the child's parents to alter the child's scores.

Competence violation. The accused lacked appropriate knowledge of the scoring procedures to score the WISC-V correctly.

¹ Although the WISC-V referred to in the scenario is the American version, as the Australian version of the WISC-V is yet to be released, it is unlikely this would have impacted the results. Based on the demographic information, it is unlikely that participants noticed this discrepancy in the detail.

Response Type: After the allegation, the accused either apologised, denied, used voluntary reticence or enforced reticence. The descriptions of these responses were described to participants to ensure consistency with the definitions discussed in the introduction.

Apology. The accused admitted that they had scored the WISC-V incorrectly due to intention or inadequate knowledge of the WISC-V scoring procedures.

Denial. The accused explicitly stated that the allegation was false, and that they were confident they had not made any errors in their scoring of the WISC-V.

Voluntary reticence. The accused stated that they did not have anything to say in response to the accusation at that time.

Enforced reticence. The accused stated that they would like to discuss the allegation, but they were not able to do so at that time.

Evidence of Guilt

A determination of guilt was given to participants in the form of a panel hearing summary from the Performance and Professional Standards Panel for the Psychology Board of Australia, which is based within the Australian Health Medical Practitioner Regulation Agency (AHPRA) (see Appendix E). The hearing summary was based on past examples from AHPRA. The summary included details of the allegation made against the accused. The findings were documented, in which the panel completed a review of the WISC-V testing records and concluded that there was evidence of misconduct. The accused was, therefore, guilty of all charges and revoked membership privileges with the Psychology Board of Australia.

Questionnaire

A questionnaire was developed to assess the participant's level of trust in the accused (see Appendix D). Participants were asked to provide a recommendation

regarding the accused's suitability for the role based on the scenario discussed above. Five multi-item scales used in previous research on trust repair were adapted for the purpose of this study in accordance with the scenario. Overall, the reliabilities of these scales are acceptable. Kim et al. (2004) conducted a factor analysis and determined that the five-factor model was a significantly better fit for the data than more parsimonious models (e.g. four-factor model). Discriminant analysis conducted by Kim et al. (2004) demonstrated that these five constructs were measuring difference aspects of trusting beliefs and trusting intentions. The final questions in the questionnaire involved manipulation checks to ensure the manipulations embedded within the scenario were successful.

Perceived Integrity Scale: Three items were adapted from Mayer and Davis (1999) to assess perceptions of integrity relating to trusting beliefs. Reliability for this scale was $\alpha = .94$.

Perceived Competence Scale: Three items were adapted from Mayer and Davis (1999) to assess perceptions of competence relating to trusting beliefs. Reliability for this scale was $\alpha = .87$.

Willingness to Risk Scale: Three items were adapted from Mayer and Davis (1999) to assess whether participants would be willing to put themselves at risk at the hands of the accused, which relates to trusting intentions. Reliability for this scale was $\alpha = .69$.

Willingness to Hire Scale: One item was adapted from Kim et al. (2007) to assess the likelihood that participants would give the accused a job contract, which relates to trusting intentions.

Job Responsibilities Scale: Five items were adapted from Kim et al. (2004) to assess the level of job responsibility participants would assign the accused given

they were hired for the job, which relates to trusting intentions. Reliability for this scale was $\alpha = .78$.

Manipulation checks: Each of the manipulation checks were multiple choice questions, in which participants were provided with several answer options. On the first administration of the questionnaire, three manipulation check questions were included regarding whether participants understood the violation and response. For instance, participants were asked ‘What does this accusation bring into question?’ and ‘What was Sawyer's response to the accusation?’

On the second administration, one manipulation check question was included to examine whether participants understood the nature of the evidence. Participants were asked ‘What did the Australian Health Medical Practitioner Regulation Agency's investigation of this incident reveal?’

Results

Data Cleaning

Data were collected from 185 participants. The final analysis only included 162 participants. It was determined that, based on reading times, some participants were not fully engaging in the study. A total of 23 participants were excluded based on whether their reading times were less than 1SD below the mean for the scenario ($M = 140$, $SD = 108$) and evidence ($M = 70$, $SD = 48$). Thus, participants who read the scenario in less than 32 seconds, and the evidence in less than 22 seconds, were subsequently excluded. This was to ensure that participants who read the materials in a plausible time and as a result, attended to the information, were retained in the data set. The pattern of results remained relatively unchanged when the cut off times were adjusted, indicating that the results were not specific to these cut-off times.

Following Kim et al (2004) and Ferrin et al. (2007), participants were not excluded based on answers to the manipulation checks. The pattern of results changed minimally when the participants who had incorrectly answered the manipulation checks remained in the data set compared to when they were excluded.

Preliminary Analyses

Manipulation Checks. Participant responses indicated that the manipulation checks were successful: 132 (82%) participants answered the first manipulation check regarding the nature of the accusation correctly; 140 (86%) participants answered the second manipulation check regarding the violation type correctly; 119 (74%) participants answered the third manipulation check regarding response type correctly; and 155 (96%) participants answered the fourth manipulation check regarding the nature of the evidence correctly.

Assumption Testing. The assumption of normality was tested to examine whether the data was normally distributed. Inspection of the skew and kurtosis statistics demonstrate that the assumption of normality was reasonable. Although there were minor violations of normality, ANOVA is argued to be robust. Thus, no adjustments were undertaken. Additionally, there was only one instance in which Levene's test of equal variances was violated ($p = .001$), relating to the planned comparison in hypothesis 3 regarding the willingness to hire scale. As a result, equal variances were not assumed for this comparison. No adjustments were undertaken as contrasts are relatively robust to violations of equal variance.

Hypothesis Testing ²

Hypothesis 1. To examine whether this study replicated the findings from Kim et al. (2004), a 2 (*violation type*; integrity and competence) x 2 (*response type*; apology and denial) between-subjects ANOVA was conducted to test whether the effects of apology and denial varied depending on the violation type. Means and standard deviations for each response are in Tables 1 and 2. Although some analyses indicated there was a main effect of violation type ($p < .05$), indicating that ratings of trust were higher for one type of violation compared to the other, these will not be reported as they are not relevant for interpreting results regarding the hypotheses.

There was a non-significant interaction between response and violation type for the willingness to risk scale, $F(1, 75) = .15, p = .704, \eta^2 = .01$, willingness to hire scale, $F(1, 75) = .68, p = .412, \eta^2 = .01$; perceived competence scale, $F(1, 75) = .01, p = .915, \eta^2 = .00$; and perceived integrity scale, $F(1, 75) = 1.60, p = .210, \eta^2 = .02$. These results signify that the effectiveness of apology and denial did not significantly differ depending on the violation type.

In contrast, there was a significant interaction for the job responsibilities scale, $F(1, 75) = 8.27, p = .005, \eta^2 = .10$, indicating that the effectiveness of apology and denial differed depending on the violation type. Follow up simple effects analyses determined that for a competence violation, there was a non-significant difference between apology and denial, $t(41) = .71, p = .489, 95\% \text{ CI} [- .55, .80], d = .11$, but there was a large significant difference for an integrity

² A 2 (violation type) x 4 (response type) x 2 (time factor) was not conducted for this study as separate analyses were conducted to directly address specific hypotheses. Furthermore, although a MANOVA could have been conducted on the trusting intentions scales (willingness to risk, willingness to hire, and job responsibilities scales) and the trusting beliefs scales (perceived competence and perceived integrity) analyses were conducted to examine these scales independently of each other. This is due to Kim et al. (2004) determining via factor analysis that, even though these scales are measuring trusting intentions or beliefs, they are measuring different aspects of these constructs.

violation, $t(34) = -3.32$, $p = .001$, 95% CI $[-.19, -.56]$, $d = 1.24$, indicating that denial was more effective than apology.

Hypothesis 2. To determine whether enforced reticence repaired trust more successfully compared to voluntary reticence, a 2 (*violation type*; integrity and competence) \times 2 (*response type*; enforced and voluntary reticence) between-subjects ANOVA was conducted. Means and standard deviations for each response are in Tables 1 and 2. Non-significant interactions between response and violation type were evident for all five scales, all F -values < 2.40 (critical F -value = 3.97), all p -values $> .126$, all $\eta^2 < .03$. These results signify that the effectiveness of enforced and voluntary reticence did not differ depending on the violation type, and that both forms of reticence are similarly effective.

Table 1

Hypothesis 1 Means and Standard Deviations for a Competence Violation

Scale	Apology		Denial		Enforced		Voluntary	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Willingness to Risk	4.00	1.00	3.97	.78	3.55	.98	3.87	1.19
Willingness to Hire	4.82	1.24	5.04	1.00	4.00	1.78	4.45	1.50
Job Responsibilities	4.29	1.19	4.17	.99	3.52	1.22	4.13	1.15
Perceived Competence	4.82	1.14	5.10	.90	4.72	1.19	4.80	1.04
Perceived Integrity	5.10	1.48	4.97	.97	4.58	1.30	4.72	1.25

Table 2

Hypothesis 1 Means and Standard Deviations for an Integrity Violation

Scale	Apology		Denial		Enforced		Voluntary	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Willingness to Risk	3.46	.85	3.59	.97	3.76	1.04	3.65	1.14
Willingness to Hire	4.28	1.07	4.89	.90	4.14	1.59	4.10	1.59
Job Responsibilities	3.44	1.13	4.69	.87	3.81	1.57	3.89	1.31
Perceived Competence	5.11	1.34	5.44	1.12	4.67	1.69	5.03	1.32
Perceived Integrity	4.11	1.11	4.67	1.19	4.62	1.46	3.87	1.22

Hypothesis 3³. Planned contrasts were conducted to compare reticence to the optimal response and the suboptimal response (see Appendix G for output). As hypothesised, it is expected that reticence should be less effective than the optimal response, but reticence should be no more effective than the suboptimal response. A new variable was created to reflect the optimal and suboptimal responses. The optimal response was apology for a competence violation, and denial for an integrity violation. In contrast, the suboptimal response was denial for a competence violation and apology for an integrity violation. Additionally, as there were no significant differences between enforced and voluntary reticence (see results for hypothesis 2),

³ The alpha levels were not adjusted for the multiple comparisons conducted for hypothesis 3 and hypothesis 4. Although some researchers recommend adjusting the alpha level, other researchers have argued that this contributes to a lack of power in studies (Sedlmeier & Gigerenzer, 1989).

both reticence responses were collapsed to create an overall reticence variable. The weightings for the contrast were optimal (2), suboptimal (-1), and reticence (-1).

Means and standard deviations for each response are in Table 3.

Results from the planned contrasts indicated that the hypothesised pattern of response effectiveness was not evident for the willingness to risk scale, $t(159) = .29$, $p = .770$, $d = .086$, $d = .07$; willingness to hire scale, $t(67.35) = 1.90$, $p = .770$, $d = .47$, $d = .39$; perceived competence scale; $t(159) = .79$, $p = .433$, $d = .26$, $d = .24$; and perceived integrity scale; $t(159) = 1.38$, $p = .169$, $d = .32$, $d = .14$. However, the hypothesised pattern of results was evident for the job responsibilities scale; $t(159) = 2.78$, $p = .538$, $d = .54$, $d = .03$.

Overall, these results demonstrate that, although it was hypothesised that reticence would be less effective than the optimal response and no more effective than the suboptimal response, this pattern is not evident. For most of the dependant measures (e.g. willingness to hire), the difference between the hypothesised and observed pattern of results appears to be due to a smaller than expected difference between the optimal and suboptimal responses. Regardless of significance, reticence consistently had the lowest ratings of trust for all measures, providing clear evidence that reticence was no more effective than the suboptimal response.

Table 3

Means and Standard Deviations for Optimal Response, Suboptimal Response, and Reticence

	Optimal		Suboptimal		Reticence	
Scale	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Willingness to Risk	3.79	.99	3.77	.84	3.70	1.07
Willingness to Hire	4.86	1.06	4.73	1.09	4.17	1.60
Job Responsibilities	4.50	1.04	3.87	1.10	3.83	1.32
Perceived Competence	5.14	1.56	5.11	1.09	4.81	1.32
Perceived Integrity	4.88	1.34	4.62	1.11	4.45	1.33

Impact of Evidence of Guilt on Ratings of Trust⁴. To determine the extent to which evidence of guilt impacted ratings of trust, paired-samples t-tests were conducted to compare trust levels before guilt (time 1) and after guilt (time 2) (see Appendix H for output). Means and standard deviations for time 1 and time 2 are in Table 4. Results demonstrated that ratings of trust at time 2 were significantly lower than time 1 for the willingness to risk scale, (Mean difference = 1.08), $t(161) = 10.69$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [.88, 1.28], $d = .96$; willingness to hire scale, (Mean difference = 1.90), $t(161) = 13.11$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [1.61, 2.18], $d = 1.27$; job

⁴ A 2 (violation type) x 4 (response type) x 2 (time factor) was not conducted to examine the impact of guilt ratings as, although there were significant interactions, these were not meaningful for what this study aimed to examine.

responsibilities scale, (Mean difference = 1.58), $t(161) = 13.09$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [1.34, 1.82], $d = 1.23$; perceived competence scale, (Mean difference = 1.43), $t(161) = 13.53$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [1.22, 1.64], $d = 1.07$; and perceived integrity scale, (Mean difference = 1.57), $t(161) = 13.01$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [1.33, 1.81], $d = 1.14$. These results signify that, not surprisingly, evidence of guilt significantly reduced participant's trusting beliefs and intentions toward the accused.

Table 4

Means and Standard Deviations for Time 1 and Time 2

Scale	Time 1		Time 2	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Willingness to Risk	3.74	.99	2.66	1.24
Willingness to Hire	4.47	1.40	2.57	1.59
Job Responsibilities	3.99	1.23	2.40	1.35
Perceived Competence	4.96	1.23	3.53	1.43
Perceived Integrity	4.59	1.28	3.02	1.46

Enforced and Voluntary Reticence after Evidence of Guilt. To examine whether enforced reticence was more effective than voluntary reticence once evidence of guilt had emerged, a 2 (*violation type*; integrity and competence) x 2 (*response type*; enforced and voluntary reticence) between-subjects ANOVA was conducted. Means and standard deviations for each response are in Table 5.

Although most analyses indicated there was a main effect of violation type ($p < .05$), similarly to hypothesis 1, these will not be reported as they are not relevant for interpreting results regarding the hypotheses.

Overall, non-significant interactions between response and violation type were evident for all five scales, all F -values < 1.14 (critical F -value = 3.96), all p -values $> .288$, all $\eta^2 < .01$. These results signify that, even when evidence of guilt emerges, the effectiveness of enforced and voluntary reticence did not differ depending on the violation type, and both responses were similarly effective.

Table 5

Means and Standard Deviations for Enforced and Voluntary Reticence after Evidence of Guilt

Scale	Competence				Integrity			
	Enforced		Voluntary		Enforced		Voluntary	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Willingness to Risk	2.27	1.13	2.07	.75	3.05	1.37	2.77	1.34
Willingness to Hire	2.05	1.43	1.95	1.23	3.38	1.72	2.55	1.82
Job Responsibilities	2.15	1.28	1.98	.88	2.80	1.33	2.53	1.66
Perceived Competence	2.83	1.40	2.70	1.08	3.81	1.34	4.17	1.25
Perceived Integrity	3.18	1.57	3.03	1.31	3.19	1.36	2.40	1.56

Hypothesis 4. This study aimed to examine the effectiveness of reticence relative to apology and denial after evidence of guilt (see Appendix I for output). As hypothesised, apology should be the most effective response as it is upfront and honest about guilt whereas the accused had lied by utilising denial. Planned contrasts were conducted examine whether reticence was less effective than apology and no different to denial. The weightings for the contrast were apology (2), denial (-1), and reticence (-1). Similarly to hypothesis 3, the two types of reticence were combined for the following comparisons as there were no significant differences between enforced and voluntary reticence after guilt. Means and standard deviations for each response are in Table 6.

Results from the planned contrasts indicated that the hypothesised pattern of response effectiveness was not evident for the willingness to risk scale, $t(159) = 1.07, p = .288, d = .27, d = .13$; and perceived competence scale; $t(159) = 1.35, p = .179, d = .34, d = .15$. However, the hypothesised pattern of results was evident for the willingness to hire scale, $t(159) = 2.09, p = .039, d = .36, d = .08$; job responsibilities scale; $t(159) = 2.14, p = .034, d = .32, d = .17$; and perceived integrity scale; $t(159) = 2.90, p = .004, d = .45, d = .21$. Overall, these results demonstrate that apology was the most effective response and reticence was no more effective than denial. Even for the measures in which the pattern did not emerge (e.g. willingness to risk), it was evidence that reticence still had the lowest ratings of trust, illustrating that reticence was even less effective than denial.

Table 6

Means and Standard Deviations for Apology, Denial, and Reticence after Evidence of Guilt

Scale	Apology		Denial		Reticence	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Willingness to Risk	2.88	1.30	2.70	1.22	2.54	1.22
Willingness to Hire	3.06	1.59	2.36	1.43	2.48	1.64
Job Responsibilities	2.81	1.45	2.15	1.26	2.37	1.33
Perceived Competence	3.85	1.38	3.58	1.50	3.37	1.40
Perceived Integrity	3.61	1.40	2.66	1.39	2.96	1.46

Discussion

The aim of the current study was to provide an empirical examination regarding the effectiveness of each response (i.e. apology, denial, voluntary, and enforced reticence) across violation types (i.e. integrity and competence). Additionally, this study aimed to examine the impact of subsequent guilt on the effectiveness of these responses for repairing trust. Overall, the results demonstrated that reticence was an ineffective response for repairing trust prior to evidence of guilt. Reticence was no more effective than apology for integrity violations, and denial for competence violations. Even when the accused had stated that they were unable to respond, this made no significant impact on ratings of trust compared to voluntary reticence. Furthermore, reticence remained ineffective once it became

evident that the individual was guilty of the allegation. Regardless of the type of violation, whether evidence of guilt had become known, and why the response was utilised, reticence was ineffective for repairing trust.

Apology and Denial

This study aimed to replicate the findings from Kim et al. (2004) regarding the effectiveness of apology and denial. Results, however, demonstrate limited support for hypothesis 1. Although a number of non-significant interactions were found regarding the effectiveness of apology and denial across violation types, a close examination of the means indicates that for some of the dependant measures (i.e. willingness to risk, job responsibilities and perceive competence), a pattern was emerging similar to what was predicted. Despite the lack of significance, this study provides partial but limited support for the theoretical framework developed by Kim et al. (2004). Results for the job responsibilities scale provide clearer evidence supporting this framework, in which denial was significantly more effective than apology for an integrity violation. It is notable that many researchers argue there is an underestimation of the importance of confidence intervals when interpreting and reporting *p*-values (American Psychological Association, 2010; Cumming & Finch, 2005; Cumming, 2008). Regardless, the *p*-value signifies there were no significant differences between apology and denial in relation to four of the five scales. The effect sizes for the non-significant interactions, however, were small.

As the results indicated that apology and denial are similarly effective, this study provides contradictory evidence for the theoretical framework proposed by Kim et al. (2004). Although the finding that the effectiveness of apology and denial differ depending on the violation type has been replicated by several studies (e.g. Ferrin et al., 2007), future research is required to examine this interaction and

whether the results from this study are replicated. If future research replicates the findings from this study that apology and denial are no different, then the theoretical framework may need to be questioned and revised. There may be specific circumstances in which this framework applies, and thus, investigation into these circumstances may be warranted.

Enforced and Voluntary Reticence

This study aimed to examine whether reticence could be an effective response under particular circumstances. Results indicated that enforced reticence was just as effective as voluntary reticence for repairing trusting beliefs and intentions. Although hypothesis 2 was not supported, these findings are interesting, given that it was predicted that an inhibiting factor that prevents the accused from responding should cause individuals to be more forgiving toward the accused. Despite the accused stating they could not respond, this made no impact on ratings of trust compared to when an individual *chose* to withhold a response.

The lack of evidence supporting enforced being more effective than voluntary reticence may have arisen due to the strength of the manipulations within the scenario. In a manipulation check, participants were provided with a statement regarding whether the accused was unable to respond (enforced) or did not want to respond (voluntary). The accuracy of responses indicated that, within the enforced reticence conditions, only 28% answered correctly. The majority of participants indicated that the accused had utilised voluntary reticence. Participants may not have understood or noticed the nature of the reticence response provided. To strengthen the distinction between the two reticence responses, an explanation as to why the response was utilised may have provided participants with a stronger sense of the response. For instance, the accused may have utilised enforced reticence due to a

court order that prohibits the disclosure of information, whereas voluntary reticence may have been utilised purely because the accused had no intention to disclose information. Accompanying enforced reticence with a reason as to why the response was utilised may emphasise that the accused wanted to respond, but was prevented from doing so due to an inhibiting factor such as a court order. .

Furthermore, preconceived ideas about enforced reticence may have impacted the effectiveness of the response. As outlined by Ferrin et al. (2007), public uses of reticence are common in the media, particularly by high profile individuals such as politicians. In many cases, these individuals express that they are unable to respond to an allegation against them. It is possible that individuals tend to perceive that high profile individuals utilise enforced reticence to avoid disclosing potentially detrimental information. Individuals may then infer that anyone who states they are unable to respond may be utilising this response even without the presence of an inhibiting factor. Thus, individuals may perceive that just because an individual has stated they unable to respond, this does not necessarily mean that there is a reason why they cannot respond. As a result, individuals may neglect the inhibiting factor that may be present as an explanation for the response.

Another plausible explanation for this pattern of results is that participants still perceived an element of choice in the enforced reticence response. Possible evidence for this explanation is that, as discussed above, the majority of participants indicated the response was voluntary rather than enforced reticence. Consistent with FAE, it may be possible that individuals perceive that the accused is still choosing to a response, regardless of this external factor inhibiting the response (Ross, 1977). Individuals may perceive that the accused could have responded if they were motivated enough. This is consistent with an explanation provided by Jones and

Harris (1967) who concluded that, even though the external factor is taken into account, this external factor is weighted less than the internal explanation for behaviour (e.g. motivation). Thus, participants may weigh the perception of choice as a more important determinant of why the accused cannot respond over and above the external factor inhibiting the response.

Reticence as an Alternative Response

In relation to whether reticence was less effective than the optimal response but no more effective than the suboptimal response, hypothesis 3 was partially supported. Although the optimal response was not always more effective than reticence, it was clear that reticence was no more effective than the suboptimal response. The results demonstrated that, even if there was only a slight difference between these responses, reticence consistently received the lowest ratings of trust. Inspection of the means prior to guilt suggests that reticence was even less effective than predicted in relation to the suboptimal response. These findings provide further evidence supporting the ineffectiveness of reticence as an alternative response to apology and denial. Thus, regardless of whether reticence is voluntary or enforced, these findings replicate the results from Ferrin et al. (2007). These results suggest that if an allegation arises, it is better to respond with an apology or denial rather than withhold a response. Responding with reticence, whether it is enforced or voluntary, offers no benefits regarding trust repair.

After evidence of guilt was presented, regardless of whether the accused had a legitimate reason as to why they cannot respond, this did not impact ratings of trust. Furthermore, it was tentatively predicted that enforced reticence may be more effective than denial as the response may foster the perception that the accused would have responded if they were able to. Results indicate that hypothesis 4 was

supported. This study replicated the findings by Kim et al. (2004) that, when guilty of an allegation, apology is the most effective response as it is upfront and honest about guilt. Furthermore, reticence was less effective than apology and no more effective than denial due to reticence failing to convey redemption and regret. This also suggests that the ambiguity associated with reticence may be diagnostic of guilt. If an allegation arises, it is more beneficial to apologise upfront compared to denying the allegation or withholding a response. Furthermore, these results provide additional evidence that reticence is an ineffective response and offers no benefits regarding trust repair.

Practical Implications

This study provides further evidence regarding the ineffectiveness of reticence, regardless of whether it is enforced or voluntary reticence. These results highlight a problem, particularly in circumstances such as organisational and legal contexts. Preventing an individual from responding is not facilitating the restoration or trust, but may actually facilitate negative perceptions of the accused. As outlined by Ferrin et al. (2007), understanding the effectiveness of reticence is important as reticence is a legitimate and commonly occurring response within these contexts. One example of enforced reticence is that the Court Suppression and Non-publication Orders Act (2010) details that a court may make an order that inhibits the disclosure or publication of information, with the aim of minimising prejudice. As enforced reticence is ineffective as indicated by the present results, providing no response is not facilitating positive perceptions regarding the accused, irrespective of guilt. Thus, prejudice may increase rather than be reduced by the use of enforced reticence. From this perspective, it is unfair to prevent an individual from responding

to an allegation. This means that the way individuals are currently asked to respond requires a change, particularly if trust is to be restored.

Furthermore, even though an individual may utilise voluntary reticence, this study has demonstrated that this is ineffective for restoring positive perceptions. In a circumstance in which an allegation arises, an individual may exercise their right to withhold information rather than respond to the allegation with an apology or denial. A further implication of this study is that an individual who is accused of an allegation should be advised that, although they may exercise this right to refrain from responding, it is in their best interest to provide a response to the allegation that is honest and appropriate.

Limitations and Future Directions for Research

There are several notable limitations to this study. A hypothetical scenario was utilised to examine the effectiveness of these responses for repairing trust. Although several studies have utilised this methodology (Kim et al., 2004; Ferrin et al., 2007), when an individual considers trusting another whom they have never worked with before, it cannot be assumed that trust repair in a hypothetical scenario is the same as a real circumstance. There may be differences when examining some factors relating to trust, such as the consequences that arise from a violation and how these consequences impact the individual. Other forms of methodology have been utilised for examining trust. Mayer and Davis (1999) conducted a field quasi-experiment to examine trust in top management. This methodology involved administering three waves of surveys to evaluate trust throughout the process of implementing a new performance appraisal system (Mayer & Davis, 1999). Thus, examining trust in this setting provided participants with a trust issue that was relevant and meaningful. The use of this form of methodology may provide a more

meaningful evaluation of the effectiveness of these responses and the impact of trust violations in an organisational context.

The extremity of the violation should also be considered for trust repair. The current study examined a violation concerning scoring an intelligence assessment incorrectly. The development of this violation was based upon the methodology from Kim et al. (2004) and Ferrin et al. (2007), in which the allegation was filing a tax return incorrectly. Other studies have examined the ability to repair trust for allegations regarding somewhat minor violations such as refusing to return deposits, bumping into another individual, or a form of misconduct (Pace et al., 2010; Schlenker & Darby, 1981; Sigal et al., 1988). Although this study replicated Kim et al.'s (2004) results that apology is an effective response after evidence of guilt due to the honest nature of the response, this may not always be the best option dependant on the severity of the violation. For instance, if a crime (e.g. break and enter) has been committed, even if the accused apologised for their actions, an apology may not offer many benefits for trust repair when compared to denying the allegation or withholding a response. An empirical examination of trust repair for differing extremities of the violation type is required as the effectiveness of apology, denial, and reticence may not extend beyond minor violations.

The current study identified responses that could be effective for repairing trust in a newly developed relationship. Several researchers, however, have identified that there are other forms of trust, such as deterrence-based, knowledge-based, and identification-based trust (Shapiro, Sheppard, & Cheraskin, 1992; Lewicki & Bunker, 1996). As these forms of trust are specific to other aspects of a trusting relationship, the ability to repair trust may alter. For example, knowledge-based trust is developed upon reoccurring interactions and is accumulated over time

as a result from direct experience with an individual (Lewicki & Wiethoff, 2000; Lewicki & Bunker, 1996). This may mean the repair process may not be identical to how trust is repaired in a newly developed relationship. Future research should aim to examine the effectiveness of these responses across violation types for different types of trusting relationships.

Furthermore, the current study primarily focused on a trust violation that indirectly impacts the individual, but was relevant to enable trust to become violated. As suggested by Schoorman et al. (2007), many different factors influence the ability to repair trust, one of which is the way trust was damaged. As discussed by Morrison and Robinson (1997), those that have been directly impacted by a trust violation are more likely to experience a decline in trust as well as negative emotions such as anger and betrayal, particularly if the violation is perceived as intentional. Those who suffer negative consequences as a result from a trust violation are likely to interpret the violation as more severe (Morrison & Robinson, 1997). Thus, trust repair may be more difficult when the individual has been directly influenced by the violation. Future research should examine how trust can be repaired when an individual has suffered as a direct consequence of the violation.

Conclusion

Research has aimed to present specific responses that can be utilised to repair trust to promote the continuity of the relationship. This study has provided further evidence regarding response effectiveness, and how one can repair trust after an allegation has arisen. In particular, the use of reticence appears to be ineffective for trust repair, which is an important finding given the frequency of its use. Further development of repair strategies can enhance the ability to repair trust within organisational contexts to enable trusting relationships to be restored. This is

important as relationship breakdowns could impact a range of organisational factors. Although it is often that behaviour results in violated trust, even with an effective response, it is unlikely that trust can be fully repaired after a violation as trust repair is a complex process. Honest and competent practice should be emphasised more within organisations to promote and maintain trusting relationships.

References

- American Psychological Association (2010). *Publication manual of the American Psychological Association* (6th ed.). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association
- Australian Bureau of Statistics (2013, November 14). *Measures of Australia's Progress, 2013*. Retrieved from <http://www.abs.gov.au/ausstats/abs@.nsf/Lookup/1370.0main+features422013>
- Barclay, L. J., Skarlicki, D. P., & Pugh, S. D. (2005). Exploring the role of emotions in injustice perceptions and retaliation. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 90*(4), 629-643.
- Butler, J. K., & Cantrell, R. S. (1984). A behavioral decision theory approach to modeling dyadic trust in superiors and subordinates. *Psychological Reports, 55*, 19–28.
- Court Suppression and Non-publication Orders Act* (2010) (NSW) (Austl.).
- Cumming, G. (2008). Replication and p intervals: p values predict the future only vaguely, but confidence intervals do much better. *Perspectives on Psychological Science, 3*(4), 286–300.
- Cumming, G., & Finch, S. (2005). Inference by eye: Confidence intervals and how to read pictures of data. *American Psychologist, 60*(2), 170–180.
- Dirks, K. T. (1999). The effects of interpersonal trust on work group performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 84*, 445-455.
- Dirks, K. T., & Ferrin, D. L. (2001). The role of trust in organizational settings. *Organization Science, 12*(4), 450-467.

- Dirks, K. T., Lewicki, R. J., & Zaheer, A. (2009). Introduction to special topic forum: Repairing trust within and between organisations: Building a conceptual foundation. *Academy of Management Review*, 34(1), 68-84.
- Dirks, K. T., & Sharlicki, D. P. (2009). The relationship between being perceived as trustworthy by coworkers and individual performance. *Journal of Management*, 35(1), 136-157.
- Ellonen, R., Blomqvist, K., & Puumalainen, K. (2008). The role of trust in organisational innovativeness. *European Journal of Innovation*, 11(2), 160-181.
- Ferrin, D. L., Kim, P. H., Cooper, C. D., & Dirks, K. T. (2007). Silence speaks volumes: The effectiveness of reticence in comparison to apology and denial for responding to integrity- and competence-based trust violations. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92 (4), 893–908.
- Gilbert, D. T. (1991). How mental systems believe. *American Psychologist*, 46(2), 107-119.
- Gilbert, D. T., Krull, D. S., & Malone, P. S. (1990). Unbelieving the unbelievable: Some problems in the rejection of false information. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 59(4), 601-613.
- Jones, E. E., & Harris, V. A. (1967). The attribution of attitudes. *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, 3, 1-24.
- Kim, P. H., Ferrin, D. L., Cooper, C. D., & Dirks, K. T. (2004). Removing the shadow of suspicion: The effects of apology versus denial for repairing competence- versus integrity-based trust violations. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89, 104-118.

- Lewicki, R. J., & Bunker, B. B. (1996). Developing and maintaining trust in work relationships. In R. M. Kramer & T. R. Tyler (Eds.), *Trust in organizations: Frontiers of theory and research* (pp. 114–139). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Lewicki, R. J., & Wiethoff, C. (2000). Trust, trust development, and trust repair. In M. Deutsch & P. Coleman (Eds.), *The handbook of conflict resolution: Theory and practice*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Malle, B. F. (1999). How people explain behavior: A new theoretical framework. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, 3(1), 23-48.
- Mayer, R. C., & Davis, J. H. (1999). The effect of the performance appraisal system on trust for management: A field quasi-experiment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 84(1), 123-136.
- Mayer, R. C., Davis, J. H., & Schoorman, F. D. (1995). An integrative model of organizational trust. *Academy of Management Review*, 20(3), 709-734.
- McKnight, D. H., Cummings, L. L., & Chervany, N. L. (1998). Initial trust formation in new organizational relationships. *Academy of Management Review*, 23(3), 473-490.
- Morrison, E. W., & Robinson, S. L. (1997). When employees feel betrayed: A model of how psychological contract violation develops. *Academy of Management Review*, 22(1), 226-256.
- Pace, K. M., Feduik, T. A., & Botero, I. C. (2010). The acceptance of responsibility and expressions of regret in organizational apologies after a transgression. *Corporate Communications: An International Journal*, 15(4), 410-427.
- Prolific Research (2012). *Data Collection, Research, Analysis*. Retrieved from <http://www.prolificresearch.com/>

- Reeder, G. D., & Brewer, M. B. (1979). A schematic model of dispositional attribution in interpersonal perception. *Psychological Review*, 86(1), 61-79.
- Reeder, G. D., & Coovert, M. D. (1986). Revising an impression of morality. *Social Cognition*, 4(1), 1-17.
- Ross, L. (1977). The intuitive psychologist and his shortcomings: Distortions in the attribution Process. In L. Berkowitz, *Advances in experimental social psychology* (pp. 173-220). New York, NY: Academic Press.
- Rousseau, D. M., Sitkin, S. B., Burt, R. S., & Camerer, C. (1998). Not so different after all: A cross-discipline view of trust. *Academy of Management Review*, 23, 393-404.
- Schlenker, B. R., & Darby, B. W. (1981). The use of apologies in social predicaments. *Social Psychology Quarterly*, 44 (3), 271-278.
- Schoorman, F. D., Mayer, R. C., & Davis, J. H. (2007). An integrative model of organisational trust: Past, present, and future. *Academy of Management Review*, 32(2), 344-354.
- Sedlmeier, P., & Gigerenzer, G. (1989). Do studies of statistical power have an effect on the power of studies? *Psychological Bulletin*, 105(2), 309-316.
- Shapiro, D. L., Sheppard, B. H., & Cheraskin, L. (1992). Business on a handshake. *Negotiation Journal*, 8(4), 365-377.
- Sigal, J., Hsu, L., Foodim, S., & Betman, J. (1988). Factors affecting perceptions of political candidates accused of sexual and financial misconduct. *Political Psychology*, 9(2), 273-280.
- Simmons, J. P., Nelson L. D., & Simonsohn, U. (2011). False-positive psychology: Undisclosed flexibility in data collection and analysis allows presenting anything as Significant. *Psychological Science*, 22(11), 1359-1366.

- Snyder, M., & Stukas, A. A. Jr. (1999). Interpersonal processes: The interplay of cognitive, motivational, and behavioral activities in social interaction. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 50, 273–303.
- Struthers, C. W., Eaton, J., Santelli, A. G., Uchiyama, M., & Shirvani, N. (2008). The effects of attributions of intent and apology on forgiveness: When saying sorry may not help the story. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 44, 983–992.
- Schweitzer, M. E., Hershey, J. C., & Bradlow, E. T. (2006). Promises and lies: Restoring violated trust. *Organisational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 101, 1-19.
- Tomlinson, E. C., Dineen, B. R., & Lewicki, R. J. (2004). The road to reconciliation: Antecedents of victim willingness to reconcile following a broken promise. *Journal of Management*, 30(2), 165–187.

Appendices

Appendix A

Information Sheet



Participant Information Sheet 1, 30.04.2015

Factors that affect Perceptions of Trust

Information for research participants

1. Invitation

You are invited to participate in an online study examining trust and decision making in an organisational setting.

The study is being conducted by Dr Matthew Palmer (Senior Lecturer, Division of Psychology, School of Medicine, UTAS) and Miss Claire Saggars and Miss Liana Riddington (Honours Student, Division of Psychology, School of Medicine, UTAS). This study is being conducted in partial fulfilment of an Honours degree for Miss Saggars and Miss Riddington under the supervision of Dr Palmer.

2. What is the purpose of this study?

People's judgments about how trustworthy others are depend on many different factors. This study will investigate factors that affect how much people are willing to trust someone they have not met or worked with before.

3. Why have I been invited to participate?

Anyone over 18 years of age is eligible to participate. Your participation in this study is voluntary and anonymous, and there are no consequences if you choose not to participate.

4. What will I be asked to do?

You will be asked to complete the study via an online survey. You will be asked to read some information about a hypothetical scenario (e.g., a description of someone else's job interview) and then answer some questions about the scenario.

There are no "right" or "wrong" answers. We are interested in your opinion and judgment, and it is important for the accuracy of the research that your responses are as honest as possible. Participation is for one session only and is expected to take approximately 20 minutes in total.

5. Are there any possible benefits from participation in this study?

We do not expect that there will be direct benefits to participants in this study. The study will help us form a better understanding of the factors that influence people's willingness to trust

others. This knowledge may lead to some useful recommendations to improve working relationships (e.g., for managers and employees).

6. Are there any possible risks from participation in this study?

There are no specific risks anticipated from participating in this study. However, if you experience any distress as a result of participation please feel free to contact the research supervisor, Dr Palmer. Alternatively, should you wish to access counselling or support services, you can contact the University of Tasmania counselling service on (03) 6226 2697 or (03) 6324 3787.

7. What if I change my mind during or after the study?

You are free to withdraw from the study at any time and you will not be asked to provide any explanation for doing so. If you choose to complete the questionnaires, we will not be able to remove your data at a later time because your responses will not contain any identifying information.

8. What will happen to the information when this study is over?

All information from the study will be kept securely on the University of Tasmania's server in de-identified form (so that no responses can be identified as belonging to a particular person) to ensure that your anonymity is maintained. The data will only be accessible to the researchers listed above in accordance with NHMRC guidelines. Access will be restricted via password protection.

At your discretion, you may choose to allow your data to be archived for use in future research. Unless you indicate your consent to your data being archived below, it will be kept for five years from the date of publication and then deleted from the server.

9. How will the results of the study be published?

Once completed, a summary of results will be available on the University of Tasmania's Psychology web page via the following address:

<http://www.utas.edu.au/psychology/research>

We anticipate that results will be available by the end of November, 2015.

10. What if I have questions about this study?

If you would like to discuss any aspect of this study you are very welcome to contact Dr Matthew Palmer via email at matthew.palmer@utas.edu.au or on 6324 3004, or Claire Saggars at claire.saggars@utas.edu.au, or Liana Riddington at liana.r@utas.edu.au.

This study has been approved by the Tasmanian Social Sciences Human Research Ethics Committee. If you have concerns or complaints about the conduct of this study, please contact the Executive Officer of the HREC (Tasmania) Network on +61 3 6226 6254 or email human.ethics@utas.edu.au. The Executive Officer is the person nominated to receive complaints from research participants. Please quote ethics reference number [H0014913].

Thank you for taking the time to consider this study.

If you would like to participate, please read the information about informed consent provided on the next screen.

Appendix B

Consent Form



Factors that affect Perceptions of Trust

This consent form is for participants interested in completing this study.

1. I agree to take part in the research study named above.
2. I have read and understood the Information Sheet for this study.
3. The nature and possible effects of the study have been explained to me.
4. I understand that the study involves reading a scenario and answering a questionnaire, after which I will receive evidence regarding the innocence or guilt of the individual in the scenario. Then I will complete an additional questionnaire. This should take approximately 30 minutes to complete. I understand that participation involves no anticipated risks to me as a participant.
5. I understand that all research data will be securely stored on the University of Tasmania premises for five years from the publication of the study results, and will then be destroyed or

I understand that all research data will be securely stored on the University of Tasmania premises for five years from the publication of the study results, and will then be destroyed unless I give permission for my data to be stored in an archive.

I agree to have my study data archived.

Yes ☐ No ☐

6. Any questions that I have asked have been answered to my satisfaction.
7. I understand that the researcher(s) will maintain confidentiality and that any information I supply to the researcher(s) will be used only for the purposes of the research.
8. I understand that the results of the study will be published so that I cannot be identified as a participant as data will be kept de-identified and my information will not be linked to my data.

Yes ☐ No ☐

9. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I may withdraw at any time without any effect.

10. I understand that I will not be able to withdraw my data after completing the online study as data will be kept in de-identified form so my information cannot be linked to my data.

If you are of 18 years of age and older, and wish to participate given that you fully understand and confirm the statements above, then click on the “I agree” button to begin participation.

I Agree ☐ I do not agree ☐

Appendix C

Example Scenario

For the purpose of this study, we will ask you to imagine that you are working for a government department responsible for hiring and managing school support staff for the region. Your role involves supporting allied health professionals, such as school psychologists and occupational therapists, by participating in recruitment, allocating caseloads, and facilitating regular case management and debriefing meetings.

Today, you have been asked to review applications for a vacant school psychologist position. To expedite the hiring process, human resources have already conducted interviews with shortlisted applicants and have provided the transcripts of these interviews for your consideration.

The first transcript in the pile is for a Ms Sawyer. Ms Sawyer was previously employed at a school psychologist in another state, and has recently moved to the area. The interview progressed through the expected structure, with Ms Sawyer giving appropriate answers. Towards the end of the interview, the conversation proceeded as follows:

Human resources officer: This position involves working closely with a broader team of allied health professionals and support staff, which may include occupational therapists, speech pathologists, teachers, and classroom support aides, among others. How would you approach collaboration of this nature?

Ms Sawyer: I believe collaboration is essential in order to enable the best outcomes for the child, and ensuring all parties share the same basic understanding of a child's situation is the key to providing cohesive, consistent support. My previous roles have all involved working with other support staff, so I am accustomed to working in this way.

Human resources officer: Thank you. As you would be aware, all school psychologist positions require detailed record keeping and timely report writing. How would you ensure that you were able to keep up with these tasks?

Ms Sawyer: Like anything of that nature, it just requires good organisation. As a part of my normal practice, I try to write case notes straight after every appointment, and ensure they are always completed at the end of the day at the latest. I find that self-imposed deadlines are helpful in ensuring that report writing is completed in an appropriate time as well.

Human resources officer: Thank you. Do you have any questions about the role or the recruitment process at this time?

Ms Sawyer: No, not at this stage. All the information I have been provided with has been very clear.

Human resources officer: Okay, good. Now, before we finish up, I would like to let you know that we have already conducted reference checks for all of the applicants for this position. I spoke to Mr Freedman from the school where you were last employed, and he said that you had been asked to resign because you had misreported a child's intelligence test score. He said that you had inadequate knowledge of the scoring procedures for intelligence tests, and that this resulted in the child being incorrectly classified as having "low average" intelligence.

Ms Sawyer: Thank you for giving me the opportunity to address that. The accusation is true, I did misreport the child's score. The truth is, we had just started using the 5th edition of that scale, and I wasn't aware of the difference in score calculation compared with the 4th edition. I should have made sure I was aware of all changes in procedure at every stage of the assessment process, and I am very sorry that I let that happen. It won't happen again. I take my work seriously, and check all my calculations using the examiner's manual. I want to assure you that my competence is not something you would have to worry about if you decide to employ me.

Human resources officer: Okay, thank you for your time Ms Sawyer, we will be in touch with you soon to let you know the outcome of your application.

Appendix D

Multi-Item Measures and Manipulation Checks

For each of the following items, please read the statement and then indicate your level of agreement using the scale provided. All responses range from “1” = Strongly Agree to “7” = Strongly Disagree, with “4” = neutral.⁵

Perceived Competency Scale

Sawyer is very capable of performing her job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Sawyer has much knowledge about the work that needs to be done	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I feel very confident about Sawyer’s skills	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Perceived Integrity Scale

I like Sawyer’s values	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Sound principles seem to guide Sawyer’s behaviour	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Sawyer has a great deal of integrity	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Willingness to risk scale

I wouldn’t let Sawyer have any influence over issues that are important to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I would give Sawyer a task or problem that was critical to me, even if I could not monitor her actions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I would keep an eye on Sawyer	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

⁵ Participants were not informed of what the items were measuring. The scale names were not included in the questionnaire, but are presented here to demonstrate the individual scales.

Willingness to hire

I would hire Sawyer	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---------------------	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

Job responsibilities scale

I would assign Sawyer to the task of supervising provisional (inexperienced) psychologists	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I would be willing to assign the most complex cases to Sawyer	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I would assign the same amount of responsibility to Sawyer as I would to her colleagues	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I would give Sawyer the same amount of autonomy in her role as her colleagues	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I would let Sawyer have complete control over the case management of a child whose case I used to manage	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Manipulation Checks on the first administration of the questionnaire (*multiple choice questions- anchors are described below*)

In the scenario, Sawyer was accused of incorrectly reporting test results.

What was the nature of this accusation?

Inadequate understanding of test calculation procedures

Intentionally misrepresenting test results

Neither of the above

What does this accusation bring into question?

Primarily Sawyer's competence (i.e. understanding of testing processes and procedures)

Primarily Sawyer's integrity (i.e. willingness to bend the rules)

Neither of the above

What was Sawyer's response to the accusation?

Admitted to incorrectly reporting test results due to incorrect score calculations

Admitted to incorrectly reporting test results in response to pressure from the child's parents

Denied the accusation completely

Sawyer chose not to respond to the allegation

Sawyer was not able to respond to the allegation

Neither of the above

Manipulation Checks on the second administration of the questionnaire (*multiple choice questions- anchors are described below*)

What did the Australian Health Medical Practitioner Regulation Agency's investigation of this incident reveal?

Sawyer was guilty of the accusation

Sawyer was innocent of the accusation

Neither of the above

Appendix E

Evidence of Guilt

Having reviewed the interview transcripts, you notice that you have just received the following email from human resources:

RE: Ms Sawyer

For your information – we have just been made aware that an investigation into Ms Sawyer’s conduct was performed by the Australian Health Medical Practitioner Regulation Agency. This provides clarification regarding the accusation discussed in the interview – please find the hearing summary attached.

Panel Hearing Summary

2015.2311

Decision of the Psychology Board of Australia

Performance and Professional Standards Panel

Jurisdiction: Tasmania

Date of hearing: 19 May 2015

Date of decision: 19 May 2015

Classification of Notification:

Documentation – Health report – Inadequate or inaccurate or misleading

Final decision: Guilty of malpractice – see below for details

Allegations

Ms Sawyer faced allegations of inaccurately reporting a child client’s test results on the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children – 5th Edition (WISC-V), thereby failing to represent the client’s true ability and make appropriate recommendations to support the client’s development and wellbeing.

Finding

The Panel conducted a complete review of the testing records and the subsequent WISC-V report on the client and found evidence of inadequate, inaccurate, and misleading reporting. The calculations do not accurately reflect the child’s performance on the WISC-V, as outlined on the scoring record used by the practitioner during testing. Further, the panel found that the practitioner had not made thorough and appropriate recommendations to support the client on the basis of the results obtained.

Determination

On the basis of these findings, the Panel concluded that there is evidence of misconduct, that is, that the practitioner had not performed to the appropriate standard. Therefore, the practitioner is concluded to be guilty of all charges and membership privileges with the Psychology Board of Australia are hereby revoked.

Australian Health Medical Practitioner Regulation Agency
G.P.O. Box 9958 | Melbourne VIC 3001 | www.ahpra.gov.au

Appendix F

Approval Letter from the Human Research Ethics Committee (Tasmania) Network

Social Science Ethics Officer
Private Bag 01 Hobart
Tasmania 7001 Australia
Tel: (03) 6226 2763
Fax: (03) 6226 7148
Katherine.Shaw@utas.edu.au



HUMAN RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE (TASMANIA) NETWORK

08 May 2015

Dr Matt Palmer
Psychology
Private Bag 1342

Sent via email

Dear Dr Palmer

Re: MINIMAL RISK ETHICS APPLICATION APPROVAL
Ethics Ref: H0014913 - Factors that affect Perceptions of Trust

We are pleased to advise that acting on a mandate from the Tasmania Social Sciences HREC, the Chair of the committee considered and approved the above project on 05 May 2015.

This approval constitutes ethical clearance by the Tasmania Social Sciences Human Research Ethics Committee. The decision and authority to commence the associated research may be dependent on factors beyond the remit of the ethics review process. For example, your research may need ethics clearance from other organisations or review by your research governance coordinator or Head of Department. It is your responsibility to find out if the approval of other bodies or authorities is required. It is recommended that the proposed research should not commence until you have satisfied these requirements.

Please note that this approval is for four years and is conditional upon receipt of an annual Progress Report. Ethics approval for this project will lapse if a Progress Report is not submitted.

The following conditions apply to this approval. Failure to abide by these conditions may result in suspension or discontinuation of approval.

1. It is the responsibility of the Chief Investigator to ensure that all investigators are aware of the terms of approval, to ensure the project is conducted as approved by the Ethics Committee, and to notify the Committee if any investigators are added to, or cease involvement with, the project.
2. Complaints: If any complaints are received or ethical issues arise during the course of the project, investigators should advise the Executive Officer of the Ethics Committee on 03 6226 7479 or human.ethics@utas.edu.au.

A PARTNERSHIP PROGRAM IN CONJUNCTION WITH THE DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH AND HUMAN SERVICES

3. Incidents or adverse effects: Investigators should notify the Ethics Committee immediately of any serious or unexpected adverse effects on participants or unforeseen events affecting the ethical acceptability of the project.
4. Amendments to Project: Modifications to the project must not proceed until approval is obtained from the Ethics Committee. Please submit an Amendment Form (available on our website) to notify the Ethics Committee of the proposed modifications.
5. Annual Report: Continued approval for this project is dependent on the submission of a Progress Report by the anniversary date of your approval. You will be sent a courtesy reminder closer to this date. Failure to submit a Progress Report will mean that ethics approval for this project will lapse.
6. Final Report: A Final Report and a copy of any published material arising from the project, either in full or abstract, must be provided at the end of the project.

Yours sincerely

Natasha Jones
Ethics Officer
Tasmania Social Sciences HREC

Appendix G

Hypothesis 3 Planned Contrasts Output

Contrast Tests

		Contrast	Value of Contrast	Std. Error	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
risk_1	Assume equal variances	1	.112985	.3850531	.293	159	.770
	Does not assume equal variances	1	.112985	.3768666	.300	53.366	.765
hiring_1	Assume equal variances	1	.82	.529	1.547	159	.124
	Does not assume equal variances	1	.82	.432	1.896	67.346	.062
responsibilities_1	Assume equal variances	1	1.292643	.4652072	2.779	159	.006
	Does not assume equal variances	1	1.292643	.4155822	3.110	62.248	.003
competence_1	Assume equal variances	1	.372419	.4732788	.787	159	.433
	Does not assume equal variances	1	.372419	.4476922	.832	56.821	.409
integrity_1	Assume equal variances	1	.681366	.4926767	1.383	159	.169
	Does not assume equal variances	1	.681366	.5032507	1.354	51.415	.182

Appendix H

Paired Samples t-Tests Output

Paired Samples Test									
		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	risk_1 - risk_2	1.0823031	1.2886268	.1012441	.8823655	1.2822407	10.690	161	.000
Pair 2	hiring_1 - hiring_2	1.895	1.840	.145	1.610	2.181	13.107	161	.000
Pair 3	responsibilities_1 - responsibilities_2	1.5814815	1.5383795	.1208665	1.3427933	1.8201696	13.085	161	.000
Pair 4	competence_1 - competence_2	1.4300389	1.3450220	.1056749	1.2213512	1.6387266	13.532	161	.000
Pair 5	integrity_1 - integrity_2	1.5699623	1.5357190	.1206575	1.3316870	1.8082377	13.012	161	.000

Appendix I

Hypothesis 4 Planned Contrasts Output

Contrast Tests

		Contrast	Value of Contrast	Std. Error	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
risk_2	Assume equal variances	1	.509690	.4783059	1.066	159	.288
	Does not assume equal variances	1	.509690	.4961499	1.027	53.116	.309
hiring_2	Assume equal variances	1	1.27	.608	2.085	159	.039
	Does not assume equal variances	1	1.27	.606	2.092	53.776	.041
responsibilities_2	Assume equal variances	1	1.106592	.5170002	2.140	159	.034
	Does not assume equal variances	1	1.106592	.5446304	2.032	51.253	.047
competence_2	Assume equal variances	1	.742426	.5502776	1.349	159	.179
	Does not assume equal variances	1	.742426	.5408819	1.373	58.589	.175
integrity_2	Assume equal variances	1	1.600117	.5521460	2.898	159	.004
	Does not assume equal variances	1	1.600117	.5421469	2.951	56.313	.005